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CANADIAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHERS

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HONORIS CAUSA

An Editorial

When this issue appears, the Chancellor of the University of Manitoba will have conferred the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws upon J. H. Stewart Reid, the Executive Secretary of the C.A.U.T. The honour goes to the man himself, but one of the things he has done to deserve it is to demonstrate the value and importance of his office.

When the National Office was established, four years ago, the obvious need was for a central clearing house of information, an institution for keeping local associations in touch with one another. Under Stewart Reid, the office has become a great deal more than that. It is in effect the secretariat of Council, not only doing a great volume of necessary work but providing the C.A.U.T. with a clarity of purpose, and a degree of perseverance and skill in action, which a federated body would not otherwise have and which it cannot do without. A part of the Executive Secretary's usefulness lies in the dutiful accomplishment of routine, like the arrangements for the release of salary information from the Bureau of Statistics or the compiling of the chart on administrative practices at Canadian universities. It is also principally the Executive Secretary who supplies the quiet but unrelenting pressure that is generally necessary if the resolutions of Council are to take effect. And Council has come to rely on the Executive Secretary for much sound advice, as well as for faithful service.

The Executive Secretary must be, as Stewart Reid is, possessed of energy, administrative capacity, tact and judgement. It is more important that he be, as Stewart Reid is, an academic, thoroughly committed to the interests and values of the academic profession. He has an enviable record as a teacher and historical scholar; but his greatest contribution to the Canadian university community is that he has made the National Office, not merely a success, but a necessity.

THE EVOLUTION OF CANADIAN UNIVERSITY ORGANIZATION

by J. H. S. Reid*

Throughout the whole of the western world at least, institutions of higher learning and professional preparation all pride themselves on their direct descent from the medieval European university. The Latin language of the parchment degrees, the titles that are given to their officers, and the names of the various councils and faculties, all serve to strengthen this pride and emphasize the continuity. The first universities appeared because during the five centuries after 600 A.D., neither the church nor the secular authority was able alone to take on the job of ensuring the survival of Europe's twin heritages, the ancient knowledge and the Christian philosophy. As a result, it fell almost entirely into the hands of the medieval teachers. To co-ordinate their individual efforts, churchmen in the medieval European cities who had made themselves masters of some specific branch of learning began to follow the example of other professional men and craftsmen and grouped themselves into corporate bodies. Some of these "collegia" of scholars quickly became famous for the quality at the instruction which they offered. Bologna came to be renowned as a centre for the study of law, Salerno and Montpellier for medicine, and Paris and Oxford for philosophy and theology. As the Middle Ages wore on these "collegia" more and more often found it necessary to take collective and corporate action so that they could regularize the collection of fees, enforce discipline in the student body, and provide some sort of recognition of learning through the granting of degrees. Very often, too, it was necessary to take collective action to protect the legal status of the foreign students who flocked to the university towns. And on many occasions it became necessary for the teachers to define formally their own relationship to the church or to the secular state. As a result, what had begun as voluntary associations of teachers and students gradually evolved into self-governing institutions. Among the great medieval universities there very quickly developed important differences in emphasis, in interests, in achievement, and in the nature of their relationships to the church and to

*Executive Secretary, C.A.U.T. This essay is one of eleven on aspects of university government in *Community of Scholars*, edited by G. C. Whalley, to be published by Clarke, Irwin next fall.

the local authorities. They all had one characteristic in common, however. They all took steps to ensure that the power to determine the policy of the institution lay in the hands of the teachers who, along with the student body, made up the academic community.

Even the dramatic rise of the nation state and of the absolute monarchies of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries failed to shake the basic assumption that to perform its essential functions of preserving and advancing knowledge the university community had to be free to regulate its own affairs. A society that was in growing need of the services of competent professional men, of doctors, lawyers, civil servants and priests, had to respect the demands of the institutions which alone could satisfy the need. Since church and state were so often in conflict with one another, neither one could allow the universities to pass under the domination of the other; as a result even under the triumphant absolutism of the mid-eighteenth century many of the European universities continued to exercise an amazing degree of autonomy.

One of the best examples of the way in which university freedom was preserved, even in an absolute state, is provided by the University of Vienna. During the reigns of Maria Theresa and Joseph II, the Habsburg government increasingly interfered in the operation of that institution. As a result, by 1847 it had become for all practical purpose merely another branch of the state administration. When the great upheaval of 1848 came, it was hardly surprising to find the students and the professors of Vienna in the van of the revolutionary movement. Rapid and sweeping reforms under the new government in 1848 and 1849 effectively restored the formal autonomy of the university and handed its control back to the academic boards of its faculties. Then came the tragedy of the failure of the revolutionary forces to consolidate their initial victories, and the restoration and reaction of 1850. Yet restoration, as far as the University was concerned, was never complete. Although it once again became legally and officially merely a branch of the state administration, many of the recently regained academic liberties were preserved. Control of the curriculum and of the administration of courses both remained in the hands of professorial boards. Financial control was returned to a government department once again, but that control could be exercised only after recommendation from the interested faculty.

Permission for state appointees from the civil service to give instruction in university class rooms had to be secured from the faculty boards, and we are told that these boards normally subjected the applicant for such permission to a rigorous examination of his academic competence before they would give approval. This form of organization, with its fairly effective guarantee of academic self-government, was on occasion challenged during the years of reaction that followed, but it was never entirely destroyed. And when the Dual Monarchy of Austria and Hungary was formally established in 1867 one of the fundamental laws of its constitution (Article 17) was that "knowledge and its teaching are and must be free". One thing is clear, under one of the most reactionary governments in modern history the scholars in the University of Vienna enjoyed a greater degree of self-government than has ever been permitted to develop at any university in Canada.

During the two depressing decades following the first world war, when the neo-absolutist doctrine of fascism threatened to destroy all free institutions in Europe, continental universities suffered many indignities. The dictators, after all, could hardly be expected to allow hostile or even uncommitted professors to teach what they chose. Yet there were many instances of resistance to intellectual totalitarianism even during the war years. And certainly one of the heartening sights of the late 'forties and 'fifties in Europe has been the restoration of the vigour and health of the university community. The performances of faculty and students alike in the universities of Germany, of Poland, of Hungary and even of Spain, have been inspiring to free men everywhere.

Perhaps the medieval concept of the university as a completely self-governing community of scholars was best exemplified and longest retained at Oxford and at Cambridge. At both of these institutions it is true that some concessions have been made to twentieth-century usage and occasionally some specific functions have been delegated to committees of interested laymen. The old tradition of almost complete autonomy, however, has hardly been touched. Oxford and Cambridge, and the constituent colleges of both, are governed in all their affairs by committees, councils and boards of teachers in the university. The chief governing body (the Congregation at Oxford and the Regent House at Cambridge) con-

sists of the entire body of teaching and administrative personnel. It elects a smaller group of its fellows (the Hebdomadal Council at Oxford and the Council of the Senate at Cambridge) which along with the Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor acts as the policy-making and executive body. The sovereignty of the academic body is never in doubt. Occasionally a committee or board may be created to look after a specific fund or a specific piece of property, and it may include among its members people from outside the university. But such a board or committee possesses only the authority which is allocated to it, and it is still the academic staff which governs the university.

It is true, of course, that few institutions of higher learning have enjoyed for such a long time such complete autonomy as have Oxford and Cambridge. In the four Scottish universities the pattern of government that was adopted when they were established was more like that of Paris and Bologna than that of Oxford and Cambridge. Final and ultimate sovereignty was placed in a Court which is small in size and usually has a majority of persons from outside the academic staff. With very few exceptions, however, members of the Court are appointed because of their experience and proven competence in university affairs, not because of any success they may have had in business, in politics or in the armed forces. And always there are on the Court a number of members — usually about one-third of the total — who have been actually elected by the *Senatus Academicus*. This latter body consists entirely of academics; in addition to its right to elect part of the Court, it has full control over instruction, degree granting, appointments and discipline.

When the still newer civic universities emerged in Britain during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, it was the Scottish model rather than that of Oxford or Cambridge which was followed. The University of London, by virtue of its size and complexity, is really in a class by itself, with the governing bodies of its constituent schools in every case a mixture of outside lay appointees and elected members of the teaching staff. At the so-called "Redbrick" universities one can see differences of structure and differences in nomenclature but all have followed the same general pattern. Most of them have a Court in which the ultimate sovereign authority formally rests. These Courts in most cases are very large bodies, and their

hundred or more members include representatives from many different organizations and institutions that might be interested in the success of the university. Normally such a Court meets only once or twice a year; its size and nature are such that its chief function is to give formal approval to decisions that already have been made elsewhere. Its members represent national or regional authorities, the body of graduates, the professions and the local municipal council. Some of them — sometimes a substantial number of them — are elected by the Senate of the university.

The effective executive authority of a Redbrick university is usually called the Council. Usually the Council has 30 to 40 members, a majority of them appointed by the Court and a minority elected by the Senate or by the faculties. For all practical purposes this is the real governing body of the university; while its decisions are made with the necessity of ratification by the Court always in mind, they are also made in the knowledge that such ratification will only be withheld in the most exceptional circumstances.

In what we would in Canada call the academic affairs of the university, the authority of the Senate is virtually unchallenged. That this body should be composed of staff personnel only is hardly ever questioned; that it should exercise complete authority over all academic matters is never questioned at all. At the moment there is some spirited controversy over the claim that the non-professional ranks, the readers, lecturers and assistant lecturers who make up about four-fifths of the British universities' teaching staffs, are not adequately represented on the various governing bodies. The question, however, is not whether the teachers and researchers should help to determine policy; it is simply how many of them should participate in the process.

In the Redbrick universities of Britain the secret of successful university administration apparently lies in the existence of good relations between Council and Senate. The reasons for this situation are quite clear. In the first place there has so far been no tendency to engage in the patently absurd business of pretending that university affairs can be divided into two classes or categories; that any purely academic decisions can be left to an academic body, but that the more important financial decisions must be entrusted to a body

of non-academic, more practical and business-like group of governors or trustees recruited from outside the university community. The plain truth is, of course, that it is a very rare occasion indeed when financial policy can be kept separate from academic policy. In the words of one British Vice-Chancellor, "It is not practicable... to divide all questions into two kinds, academic and general policy' and to allot one kind to the academic body and the other kind to the 'governing' body itself... In important matters both the academic and the business and financial aspect must continue to be weighed and balanced together right up to the moment of decision; and the body which makes the final decision must be capable of doing this, and must see that it actually does it. It simply will not do for 'statements' and 'reports' to be prepared by an 'academic' body and decisions to be made by a 'business' or 'general policy' body."*

In the second place the British universities have never accepted the North American notion that the ultimate power of government should be placed in the hands of an outside authority which must be protected from all contact with the university teachers except through the office of the president. In Britain it is accepted as the normal thing that "the academic staff should have *de facto* control of the following functions: (1) the admission and examination of students; (2) the curricula for courses of study; (3) the appointment and tenure of offices of academic staff; and (4) the allocation of income among the different categories of expenditures... Where such *de facto* control is withheld from the academic body, academic freedom is insecure."** This is the view of a very well-known British University Vice-Chancellor; since his four conditions are fulfilled in all of the universities of Britain, and in most of the other Commonwealth countries as well, he was perhaps justified in his conclusion that self-government is as wide-spread and as effective and secure in most modern British and Commonwealth universities as it is at Oxford and Cambridge. It is interesting to note, however, that his conditions are not fulfilled in *any* Canadian university. Faculty members may exercise some influence — perhaps a good deal of

*Sir Charles Morris, "Some Reflections on Policy Making in a University", *Vestes*, October 1959.

**Sir Eric Ashby, "Self-Government in Modern British Universities", *Science & Freedom*, December 1956.

influence — in the decisions of the Board of Governors about admission requirements, examinations and curricula. But it is always influence, never final authority. Appointments and promotions are still legally and officially made “at the pleasure” of the Board of Governors. And of course, to suggest that members of the academic staff might exercise control over the allocation of funds is looked upon as “ivory tower nonsense”, if not downright subversion, in any properly-run Canadian university. A Canadian professor of economics may be asked for advice about the nation’s financial policy, but he must not have a voice in determining that of his own university. A professor of political science may be asked by the United Nations to help the new African states to establish democratic machinery but he must never apply his knowledge or his analytical skill to the constitutional problems of his own institution.

The machinery of government in the British institutions reflects their attitude to academic self-government. The Council is always kept apprised of the views of the teaching and research staff because a substantial number of its members are elected from and by that body. Even its appointed members are what are called in England “university men”, and they are assumed to have both knowledge and experience of university affairs. Most important of all, the flow of business and of policy-making in British universities is always from the academic staff to the governing bodies. The overwhelming majority of policy proposals, even financial ones, are made by the academic staff, discussed, amended and approved by its councils at faculty boards, and then presented to the ultimate governing body for ratification. Here in Canada the flow of business and policy is all too often in the opposite direction. In the case of the appointment of a new president, for example, faculty members are sometimes only informed by a newspaper announcement. On occasion some sort of informal consultation does take place, but it is always informal — never required. As yet the provision for staff consultation on any administrative appointment has found a place in the law and custom of only one Canadian institution. When it occurs at all, the discussion with the faculty that does take place before a president’s appointment, is usually simply discussion with those persons who by temperament or administrative arrangement are almost bound to provide exactly the kind of advice that the authorities want.

In the new universities that are being established in Britain, the pattern of the Redbrick institutions is still being followed. The Academic Planning Board for a new university in the city of York, in its Report, has emphasized "that it is a good tradition of British universities that governing bodies should, in the normal course of events, act chiefly upon recommendations passed up to them from the academic sphere, and that their function should be conceived as that of adjudicating between alternative academic suggestions, and giving practical effect to such suggestions which survive, rather than enforcing from above policies which are alien to academic opinion." Specifically, the Planning Board has suggested as the "ultimate" governing body of the new university, a Court of approximately 100 persons meeting at infrequent intervals and including representatives of the academic staff, of professional organizations, of the churches and of both local and national governing agencies. Executive authority will be vested in a much smaller Council with power to nominate the vice-chancellor and other officers, to appoint professors, to govern and manage finances and to look after the property. This Council will have twenty-one members. Six of them will be elected by the teaching staff, five will be appointed by the York City Council and by the authorities in the three Yorkshire ridings. Five additional members will be appointed by the Court (they, too, may be academics if the Court wishes), and the sixteen together will then co-opt five additional members to bring the Council to its total of twenty-one.

British academics regard these recommendations as being essentially sound, conservative and quite unexciting. Here in Canada the only public comment appeared in the *Toronto Globe and Mail*, whose education editor drew from the Report the rather startling deduction that it showed that British universities are now moving closer to the obviously superior Canadian or American university model ! The plain truth is that if a university were to be now established in Canada on the model proposed for York, a major revolution would have taken place in Canadian higher education.

When universities were being first established in America their founders used the nomenclature of the European and British institutions, but copied very little else. In the pioneer environment of the early colonies there was no existing body of teachers and students to form a self-governing academic community, and so the local

authorities of church or town had to take the lead. Harvard College and the College of William and Mary were early examples of the results of such initiative. After 1783, when the colonies became members of the new United States, many of the state legislatures took over the task of establishing institutions of higher learning, and their new universities joined the older private colleges in that organized pursuit of advanced knowledge which has been such a marked feature of American life ever since.

Both private and state institutions were provided with an organization of control that was quite unlike that of the medieval university. Perhaps this new structure was not intended to be permanent. According to the former Chancellor of the University of Buffalo, Dr. Samuel P. Capen, "It was evidently the intention of those who established the first colonial colleges in America to follow the pattern of the English college with respect to ultimate ownership and management. But for the purpose of launching these institutions, non-academic boards composed of prominent officials of church and state were set up. Like Karl Marx's dictatorship of the proletariat, these bodies were supposed to wither away once the organizing job was done. But when that task was completed they showed about the same amount of enthusiasm for withering that Stalin and his associates now [1953] exhibit. And though the professors struggled manfully through several decades to capture the authority over the institutions which they believed they were intended to have and which their English colleagues exercised, they were in the end decisively and permanently defeated. A quite different plan of management was developed and became the standard for the institution of colonial America and later for those of the United States. For more than two centuries it has remained essentially unchanged."*

The American university has never been a self-governing community of scholars. Instead it has usually been treated as if it were a somewhat peculiar type of business enterprise. Supreme authority is vested by charter or by act of the legislature in a Board of Governors or a Board of Trustees. This Board is the custodian of all the property of the university and is empowered to use or dispose of it as it sees fit. It has the authority to appoint or dismiss all employees, from the president to the cleaning women. It erects buildings, buys equipment, and decides when and how "the plant"

*S. P. Capen, *The Management of Universities*, pp. 4-5.

shall be operated. Legally, if not in practice, it determines the curriculum and sets requirements for admission and for degrees, since the academic Senate is always a subordinate body. In short the Board *is* the university. In many cases the Board is responsible to no one but itself, and in some it is in fact self-perpetuating. Usually it does not directly or completely represent the public, the state government, or even any clearly identifiable public interest, and it never represents either the teachers or the students of the institution. In its outward appearance and legal structure, then, the typical American university is, in Dr. Capen's words, "a simon pure example of authoritarian government," which illustrates the "curious paradox . . . (that) the nation which has developed political and social democracy more completely than any other, has devised and perpetuated a plan of university control which, technically and legally, does not show even a chemical trace of democracy."

The most striking characteristic of the Board which governs the typical American university is that its members are absentee landlords, for they are never members of the academic community. They may occasionally represent the interests of a church, or they may be *ex officio* representatives of a state or municipal government. More often they are simply public-spirited citizens who have been co-opted to serve as overseers. In most cases it is largely a matter of chance that they have become members of a university board rather than trustees of the public library or directors of the Community Chest or the Red Cross. The members of university boards are practically always chosen because of their achievements in the world outside the university gates. They are obviously either prospective donors or at least such respectable members of the business society that their names will be attractive to prospective donors. They need not be experienced in university affairs; indeed it does not really matter whether they have ever attended a university themselves. In fact, about the only definite and unbreakable rule is that they must *not* be members of the university teaching staff.

The non-academic, legally omniscient, and in the case of the non-tax-supported schools often quite irresponsible Board of Governors, is the most striking outward feature of university organization in America. In actual practice, of course the Board's authority is sometimes limited by a watchful legislature, if public funds are involved. And often, too, it is not exercised, but simply delegated

to other agencies. The main interests of most Board members, however public-spirited they may be, are not those of the university, and their knowledge and experience of the problems of higher education, and of university administration particularly, is bound to be very limited. Because they lack the time or the inclination to grapple with the day-to-day problems of administration, most members of most Boards are perfectly willing to accept without serious question the decisions and recommendations of the institution's chief administrative officers. Of this group of officials, of course, the university's President is the spokesman. As a result he can be — and often is — the real holder of the Board's legal power.

In the American university structure the office of the President bears very little resemblance to that of the rector or principal or vice-chancellor of a European or British university. Instead of being the designated spokesman for a community of scholars, and of playing the role of *primus inter pares* in that community, he is in the American system a sort of general manager of an enterprise which is apparently supposed to operate as if it were a business corporation. He is the deputy of the Board; he is appointed by that body and he is responsible only to it. He may be chosen from the faculty ranks, but when he is so elevated he ceases in fact, no matter how much he may protest, to be a member of the faculty. His job is not to carry forward to the Board the proposals, views and decisions of the academic staff, it is rather to present the Board's decisions to the academic staff, and to win as much approval for these decisions as he can. If he produces quietude and calm he is successful; if there is disagreement and tension he is failing. And the faculty member who tries to treat the President as if he were really *primus inter pares*, had better not count on promotion. The President of an American college or university is practically always the only official link between Board and faculty, and in case of difference of opinion with his faculty, his right of ready access to the Board will be practically always decisive. Fortunately, most Presidents have had too much sense to avail themselves of their opportunities to become complete dictators, but at least the temptation is there.

There have been fairly recent periods when the legal powers of the Boards, and the practical powers of the administrative officers, have both been used in a scandalous way to suppress freedom in some American institutions. During the early years of the present

century, for example, the bigotry and authoritarianism of the boards with which he had come in contact, provoked Thorstein Veblen into the explosion of exasperation which he published under the title of *The Higher Learning in America*. Both university presidents ("captains of erudition" was his name for them), and university trustees alike were condemned for their "bootless meddling with academic matters which they do not understand". Perhaps Veblen had some justification at that time for his strictures. Certainly this would seem to be so in 1915, in the first investigation of an alleged violation of academic freedom to be carried on by the newly formed American Association of University Professors. The investigation was provoked by the dismissal of two University of Utah professors. One had confided in confidence to a friend that he did not approve of the ethics of the chairman of the Board of Governors, and the other had remarked in one of his classes that in his opinion the University of Utah was not quite as good an institution as was Yale.

Not all the instances of interference with academic freedom were comical. During the early years of the century scholars of international fame in universities of world-wide reputation were summarily dismissed for expressing opinions on theology or biology or economics or politics which shocked the prejudices or disturbed the complacency of a Board member or a wealthy alumnus, whose indignant protests then turned the eyes of the legislature upon an institution foolish enough to employ a heretic, an atheist, or a "red". In our own time, during the worst days of the McCarthy era of recent horrid memory, some Boards of Governors in some American universities became willing partners in creating a sort of academic reign of terror. Fortunately for all of us on this continent, however, there were also examples of enlightened and dignified refusal to surrender, and there are those who now claim that the American academic tradition became stronger as a result of its "trial by ordeal." There have been bad periods, then, and undoubtedly there are still some bad institutions and bad practices. In the main, however, considering the authoritarian structure of government that exists at most American universities, the wonder is not that power has sometimes been abused, but that it has not been abused more often, and more flagrantly, than has been the case.

The American authoritarian pattern of university government was the pattern that was generally followed in Canada, too. There were a few exceptions, of course. Those colleges and universities

which were established by the Roman Catholic Church or by one or other of its orders, have never been allowed to come under the jurisdiction of an independent, lay and non-academic Board. Some of them have governing bodies upon which senior academic staff members may sit, and on which representations from outside both the Church and the university communities may be in the minority, or not present at all. Laval, for example, which was established in its present form in 1852, includes in its predominantly clerical Board of 160 persons, some twenty-one members of the teaching and administrative staff. Another of the Catholic universities, St. Francis Xavier, has had since 1953 a constitution which not only provides for the election of three faculty representatives on its governing board of thirty members, but also requires an expression of faculty opinion before the appointment of a new president. On the other hand, the University of Montreal has a Conseil des Gouverneurs from which members of the teaching staff are specifically excluded. The Conseil is composed instead of the Archbishop of Montreal as *ex officio* chairman, the President of the University, one of the Quebec bishops, and nine prominent representatives of the business and professional elements in Catholic society. It is important to note, too, that even at those Catholic institutions where there are Boards of Governors on which members of the teaching staff sit, these members are in most cases clerics as well as teachers.

There are several universities in Canada — Acadia in Nova Scotia, Mount Allison in New Brunswick, and Bishop's in Quebec — which still maintain some connection with a parent Protestant church. It is quite obvious, however, that in all of these institutions effective authority has passed from the founding church to a non-academic board of control whose members are recruited from its body of lay, interested, and if possible, wealthy businessmen supporters. Acadia has a Board of thirty, of whom only three are Baptist ministers; Mount Allison has a Board of forty-four members, of whom at present nine are United Church ministers; and Bishop's has a Board of twenty-four Trustees, all of whom are laymen.

Many of our largest universities were founded originally on a church basis and then went through a process of separation to become "private" universities. Thus Dalhousie, originally incorporated in 1821, agreed in 1863 to provide representation on its Board of Governors to any denomination that would endow a chair, and began soon after to establish the professional faculties out of which was

established a non-denominational university. Queen's began as a Presbyterian college chartered by Queen Victoria in 1841. As its functions broadened, however, its relationships with the Presbyterian Church altered, and in 1912 an Act of the Parliament of Canada removed the last signs of denominational control. Western Ontario received its original charter from the Ontario legislature in 1878, but in 1908 amended its form so as to become completely non-denominational. McMaster University, established by the Baptist Convention of Quebec and Ontario in 1887, in 1957 became completely non-denominational.

These universities were fortunate in one respect. As they won their independence from church control they did not at the same time fall under the authority of the government. For a variety of reasons provincial governments in Canada have been rather reluctant to become very deeply involved in education at the university level. Perhaps it was some lingering influence of the British tradition of university autonomy; perhaps it was simply a reluctance to assume too much financial responsibility for providing a kind of educational opportunity that society is only now beginning to agree should be available to all who are able to profit by it. But whatever their reasons, the legislatures that set up the new provincial universities of the twentieth century were not tempted to put them directly under the supervision of a Department of Education. A valuable tradition of freedom from direct control by government officials was the result.

When the University of Toronto was reorganized in 1906, and given its present provincial status and federal structure, it was on the basis of the report and recommendations of a Royal Commission which had been set up specifically to grapple with the problem of maintaining the university's autonomy while recognizing its need for public support. Although this was long before Royal Commissions had become quite as free-moving and free-spending as they are today, the Commissioners actually visited a number of American institutions. They went to Harvard, Yale and Princeton, of course, but they also visited Cornell, Johns Hopkins and Columbia as well. To see how good state-supported institutions operated, they also studied the Universities of Wisconsin, Illinois, Chicago and Michigan. The possibility of using one of the British universities as a model must have been discussed at least, but apparently it was rather summarily dismissed. "With the constitution and administration of the English university, one of our members was familiar", says the *Report*.

but there were no traces of "the Oxbridge tradition" in its recommendations. (The member referred to was the famous Goldwin Smith, whose public statements carried an awesome air of infallibility at this time, at least for polite Toronto society.) When the new University of Toronto Act was passed in 1907 it not only laid the constitutional basis for the present organization, but became as well the model which the legislatures of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia all simply copied when in their turn they set up their own universities. In all of them that freedom from direct control by the provincial government which the Toronto Royal Commission had sought became a characteristic of their structure. But this freedom was ensured by the creation of an independent and non-academic governing board of director-governors and a general manager-president, not by the guarantee of academic self-government.

It was an American pattern that was thus adopted in the new Canadian institutions. In most of them — indeed in all that are English-speaking — the Board of Governors of Trustees is still legally and formally the sovereign authority. Although not one of the Canadian universities could exist without support from government funds, the Boards are not directly or formally responsible to any other authority for their handling of these public funds. The legislatures must, of course, approve the annual budget — and may on occasion slash the totals that are requested. But there has been until very recently little attempt to interfere with the allocation of available funds inside the university. It may be that interference of this kind is coming. Recent legislation in British Columbia, for example, will make it possible for the legislature to examine item by item all university expenditures, even to the details of individual salaries. Given the attitudes of the present British Columbia government, it seems clear that the University's internal financial autonomy could quite easily be endangered.

Boards of Governors over the provincially-established universities are usually dominated by appointees of the government. At U.B.C., for example, of the eleven members of the Board, the Chancellor and six others are so appointed. At Saskatchewan the provincial government names five members of the Board, in addition to the Chancellor and to the Deputy Minister of Education and the Deputy Provincial Treasurer who sit as *ex officio* members. Total

membership of the Board is fourteen. In Manitoba the provincial government appoints ten of the fourteen Governors, in New Brunswick thirteen out of twenty-one and in Newfoundland ten out of thirteen.

In some of the private universities of Canada the Board itself controls the appointment of many of its own members and is thus to some extent self-perpetuating. At McGill, for example, twenty-one of the total of twenty-five members are elected by the Board itself and only three by the Senate. Usually at both private and provincial universities a few Board members — always a very small minority — are elected by the body of graduates. Occasionally, as at McMaster, there is special provision for a few representatives of the administration. But no matter what the governing bodies may be named, no matter how large they may be, and no matter what interests their members are intended to represent, the organizational structures of Canadian secular universities and colleges, private or public, all have one feature in common. Members of the academic staff are specifically forbidden the right to sit on the Board. Of all the provincial universities only Saskatchewan and New Brunswick have neglected to write into their statutes a definite disfranchisement of their own academic staff. So far no one has worried much about this apparent oversight, for no member of the teaching or research staff has ever been asked to serve. The assumption is always clear; if the Board ever feels any need to know the views of the faculty, the President can provide both information and advice.

The American tradition of the omnicompetent, irresponsible, and completely non-academic Board of Governors has thus been very widely accepted in Canada. So, too, has been the American university administrative pattern. Presidents are just as powerful, and vice-presidents, administrative assistants, deans, business officers, development officers, public relations officers, admissions officers, etc., are just as numerous — and just as rapidly proliferating too — in Canada as in the United States. Nowhere does Parkinson's Law operate more obviously than in the civil service of the universities, and it seems to matter very little where the universities are located, or even how poor they are. The American academic who takes employment in Canada, and the Canadian academic who moves to the United States, will have no difficulty in fitting himself into the administrative pattern of his new home. It will be very much the same as the one he has just left.

While Canadian universities have thus been consciously and deliberately organized on the American pattern, at least one curious difference does exist. The structure of government in the good United States institutions has in fact altered rather radically during the past quarter-century. As a result, most of them now reflect to some extent the American political traditions of separation of powers, of built-in checks and balances, and of detailed, meticulously-written constitutional guarantees against the exercise of absolute power by any one agency of university government. The jurisdiction and competence of the Board, the Senate, the Faculty Council, the Deans and the various Committees have been carefully defined in statutes and by-laws which can and do very often provide rather elaborate safeguards against irresponsible authority. At one rather highly regarded state university, for example, the printed volume of administrative regulations now makes up a book of 112 pages. At another, some twenty-one Faculty Committees are invested with very impressive powers. Sometimes the checks and balances and safeguards of faculty participation in policy-making are not embodied in constitutional rules, but have developed simply as a result of the sheer complexity of the structure required to run a modern university. For example, the Board of one mid-western state institution recently decided to refuse the use of university premises and university facilities for a public lecture by a visiting British academic whose political views were not shared by the Board members. By the time, however, that the Board's decision could be considered and ratified by the several committees to which it had to go, the visitor had long since come and gone.

More often the safeguards against arbitrary authority in American colleges and universities have simply evolved out of circumstances and have hardened into custom and convention. Occasionally a Board still makes an attempt to use unwisely the power which is formally and legally in its hands, and to attempt some flagrant violation of good sense. As a result, the American Association of University Professors annually has to pass formal censure against several offending institutions. But these violations normally have the effect of forcing both teaching staff and administrators to make common cause in the defence of their own autonomy. This happened during the McCarthy era, for example, on a rather impressive scale, and still happens occasionally. One result has been

that at the better American universities the Presidents and other senior administrators are much more truly the representatives and the spokesmen of the academic staffs than they ever are, except occasionally by accident of temperament, at a Canadian institution. Most important of all, there is an apparently growing awareness in American public life that there is a clear correlation between the exercise of arbitrary and irresponsible power by a university's governing board and the resulting debasing of its academic standards. The wealthy alumnus is more powerful, the President more dictatorial, and the Board more reactionary, at Cow College or Unknown University, than at Harvard or Yale or Princeton. But is there any doubt about where the good students and the reputable academics prefer to be?

One feature of the recent development of the American universities has been a steady growth of actual and formal participation by the academic faculty in the processes of government and policy-making. Surveys undertaken by the American Association of University Professors* have demonstrated that a number of very specific reforms have been made during the past quarter-century and are being more widely adopted each year. By 1955, for example, out of some 360 American universities examined, 81 had created some formal machinery for exchange of opinion between faculty and trustees, 149 had adopted some device for consultation of the faculty in the choice of a president, 125 had machinery for consultation in the choice of deans and department heads and fifty-seven had faculty participants in the business of budget-making.

Here in Canada no similar development has yet taken place. Although faculty associations at seven different institutions during the past two years have formally requested the right to elect some representatives on the governing body, none have as yet been successful. Two such requests were made during the past year in Ontario; on the advice of the province's new Advisory Committee on University Affairs both were refused. Indeed, the evidence suggests that they were not even seriously considered. The composition of this Ontario committee itself indicates how far we apparently are from reform in Canada. Of the seven members of a group charged with the imposing task of providing advice and information to the cabinet on the establishment, expansion, operation and financing of the

*Report of Committee T., A.A.U.P. *Bulletin*, Spring 1955.

universities of Ontario, not one is a university man. Apart from the few Catholic institutions already mentioned, no university constitution in Canada today provides for formal faculty participation in its government by any means whatsoever.

The non-academic Boards in this country still possess the sole right to appoint and to dismiss the academic staff and as a result the relationship between Board and professor is still legally that of employer and employee, of master and of servant. Courts in New Brunswick, in Ontario, in Manitoba and in British Columbia, in cases where academics have pleaded a claim to permanent tenure in their posts, have without exception upheld the legal powers of the Boards. Of course it is reasonably clear that the appointment of a professor at a reputable Canadian university will not usually be terminated arbitrarily, or without rather exceptional circumstances being offered as sufficient cause. But it can and does happen. The most widely publicized case in recent years was that of the dismissal of Professor Harry Crowe by the Board of Regents of United College in Winnipeg, in 1958. An associate professor in history, with eight years of service on the College staff, during which time he had twice been promoted by its administration, was summarily dismissed at the beginning of the academic year. His sin was that he had expressed, in a private letter to a friend, opinions that were mildly critical of the Principal of the College, and somehow the letter fell into the hands of that officer. It is probably true that the really important results of the United College case were the overwhelming nation-wide condemnation of the action of the Board, the loss to the institution by resignation of half of its academic staff, and the general agreement across the whole university community of Canada that such incidents should not be allowed to occur.

In the years since the United College affair no effective steps have been taken anywhere to guarantee that such arbitrary and irresponsible actions will not re-occur. Significantly, the office of the Canadian Association of University Teachers during this same period, has had to deal with no fewer than sixteen cases in which there have been allegations of wrongful or arbitrary dismissal. As a result, there are many Canadian university academics who would agree with the condemnation of Pierre Dansereau, formerly Dean of the Faculty of Science at the University of Montreal. In a World

University Service symposium of scholars from some sixteen countries, Dr. Dansereau expressed the view that "few Canadian universities at this time have reached the degree of maturity which makes all violations of academic freedom unthinkable. If we believe that to exemplify its autonomy fully a university must achieve a reasonably harmonious rapport between administration and staff — where opinion is not subject to discipline, where material conditions (space, time, remuneration) are fair — then many Canadian universities fall short of some one or another basic requirement... Among superior officers and governors of Canadian universities there is no lack of clergymen and businessmen whose idea of the university — if it could be formulated at all — would prove appalling to scholars."*

The danger that either the Boards of Governors, or the provincial governments which appoint the majority of their members, will cease to exercise their traditional restraint is a danger that must not be ignored. If enough voices are raised in demand for closer governmental control over the universities, not more than one or two of the present provincial governments could be counted on to resist. Increasingly often speakers at service club luncheons, Chamber of Commerce meetings and political rallies, are fatuously repeating the slogans that "He who pays the piper calls the tune," and that we need "More efficient use of the educational plant." Their audiences must agree, of course, since "Education is now big business!"

British university people continue to be puzzled by what they see as the power structure of a Canadian university. A visitor from the University of Edinburgh, for example, after a journey across Canada in 1957 offered the comment, "Having found in the Canadian university so much to admire — so much indeed to envy — I was all the more disturbed to find that the element of academic participation in the supreme government of universities was practically non-existent."** Another visiting academic, after filling a temporary teaching appointment here, noted that our universities are run "on

*Pierre Dansereau; *The University Today* (an International Study by World University Service), p. 206.

**C. H. Stewart, "The Government of Canadian Universities," *C.A.U.T. Bulletin*, April 1957.

what may mockingly be termed 'sound business principles,'” and warned that although the authoritarianism displayed is “a comparatively benevolent form of despotic rule, nevertheless it should be remembered that it is only benevolent because the opposition has up until now been so irresolute as to be harmless.”*

No group of institutions, no single aspect of our society, has changed so radically or so completely, both as to form and purpose, as have the Canadian universities during the past fifty years. Small colleges that in their beginnings simply concentrated on the teaching of theology, classics and letters, have become giant universities with many faculties, professional schools and institutes of various kinds. Enrolment at most of them has climbed from a few hundred to many thousands. They have become training grounds for the nation's leadership in business, government and education. They carry on the greater part of the research that is being done in almost all areas of science, of medicine, of applied science and of social problems. They consume enormous quantities of public funds. They provide the setting for much of the artistic and cultural activity of the nation. They are national institutions of the greatest importance. Yet they are still governed as if they were community lending libraries.

We are constantly being told nowadays that the function of the university community in Canada today is to preserve, to criticize, to augment and to transmit all the knowledge and all the creative capacity that is available and possible for us. The scholars who are charged with that staggering responsibility can hardly longer be treated as if they were irresponsible servants, formally and specifically forbidden a voice in managing their own affairs, and subject always to the wiser influence and superior authority of their businessmen masters.

Many different views have been expressed about the reforms which are necessary and possible in the present pattern of university government in Canada. Many of the proposals which have been offered will be argued in other essays in this volume. One thing is clear. There has been lately much pointing with pride to the

*A. M. Kingborn, "The University Teacher in Canada", *The Universities Review*, February 1962.

tremendous achievement of higher education in Canada during the past decades, and much smugness about the fact that so far their essential sound reason and good will have persuaded Canadian university scholars to expend an enormous amount of time and energy in effecting compromises and patching up devices to make do. But none of this should be allowed to hide the plain truth that in most of our existing universities, the present organization is at its best faulty and anachronistic. At its worst it poses a serious threat to academic freedom and to the future health and vigour of higher education in Canada.

GENERAL AND SPECIALIST DEGREES

by A. D. C. Peterson*

The appointment of the Robbins' Committee on Higher Education has started off the widest discussion of university courses that England has known this century. If one can judge from the mass of published evidence one of the most generally supported proposals is a great extension of general degrees.

At the older universities some general degrees still retain a very high academic reputation. The Cambridge Natural Sciences Tripos demands a general survey of physics, chemistry and biology before specialization in a single field begins in the third year. At Oxford "Greats", which is not—as is commonly supposed—a comprehensive study of classical civilisation, but a combination of largely modern philosophy with study in depth of two limited periods in ancient history, still attracts many of the best minds; "Modern Greats", a three-subject degree in politics, philosophy and economics is also a flourishing school. At London the B.Sc. (Econ.) is a general degree of very high standing.

Yet in the nineteenth-century civic universities the general degree has largely fallen into disrepute. It has tended to become a course for weaker students, consisting of three subjects chosen without much necessary co-ordination from the field of arts or science specialist degrees, and taken by those who could not be sure of reaching degree level in any one of them. In some universities it is not even possible to read for honours in a general degree course; in others honours are very rarely awarded. As a result general degrees and pass degrees have become associated in the public mind; the students reading for general degrees are not the direct concern of any one faculty or department in the way that specialist students are; and the specialist teachers tend to regard their general degree students as an uninteresting and tiresome distraction from the main business of getting their specialist papers published and teaching their specialist students.

A reaction against this treatment of the general degree can be seen already in the new universities of the twentieth century, North Staffordshire and Sussex (Keele and Brighton for short). At Keele every student, after completing a "foundation year," in which an attempt is made to introduce him to a wide variety of disciplines,

*Director, Department of Education, University of Oxford. This article is reprinted from *Vestes*, June 1962.

has to choose two major and two minor subjects to make up his degree course for the next three years. At Brighton barriers between faculties are being broken down on the arts side in "schools" which cover both the language and history of a European area with some general treatment of philosophic ideas. On the science side the degree course in the School of Physical Sciences is planned to start with a general introduction to the nature of matter, continue with a combined course covering work in what are normally considered the separate fields of physics and chemistry and proceed to specialisation only in the final year.

It is significant that both these patterns owe their inspiration to the Balliol of Jowett. Keele was the creation of Lord Lindsay, then Master of Balliol, and Brighton, which has sometimes been nicknamed "Balliol-by-the-Sea" has, as its Vice-Chancellor, John Fulton, a Greats tutor at Balliol in Lindsay's time. Indeed the whole controversy about general and specialist degrees takes us back to the cleavage in nineteenth-century Oxford between Jowett and Mark Pattison. If the primary purpose of the University is research and the extension of knowledge, as Mark Pattison believed, then it may seem that the sooner future research workers begin to concentrate on their specialist fields the better; and certainly the university teachers, being primarily concerned with research themselves, will want pupils who are disciples of their own discipline. If the primary purpose of the University is to teach young men and women who will not themselves become academics or research workers, but will take with them into the "outside world of telegrams and anger" the broad interests and trained mind which Jowett cultivated in his Balliol graduates, then there is much to be said for a broader and less specialized course.

It is worth noticing one significant difference between the Brighton and Keele patterns. At Keele a student is compelled to choose at least one of his minor subjects from the other side of the "arts-science" barrier to the major area of his concentration. Thus no one can leave Keele without having studied at university level both an arts and a science subject. At Brighton on the other hand the courses, though general, are strongly centred on a coherent area of study on either the arts or science side, and there is a conscious effort to prevent such eccentric combinations of unrelated subjects as Stephen Leacock's famous trio of Turkish, music and theology. More

in the Keele than the Brighton tradition is a proposal put forward by Nottingham, but not yet accepted, for a separate Faculty of General Degrees to be established some eight miles from the existing University buildings and, like Keele, fully residential. The first suggestion for the course regulations in this faculty seemed to go even further than Keele and envisage one subject out of three being taken from "the other side."

Two problems besetting the planners of general degrees are illustrated in these experiments. The first is the old one, which I have already mentioned, the relationship of research and teaching in a university or faculty which is concentrating on general degrees. The second is the degree of coherence in subject matter which is necessary for a good general degree course. The interdependence of research and teaching at university level has become so widely accepted that it is almost heresy to question it. Yet, like many orthodoxies, it is in danger of becoming an unthinking orthodoxy, and we are surely justified in testing it a little more thoroughly by seeing how far it applies in detail in differing disciplines. I would suggest as the extreme statement of the heresy that in the humanities it has no necessary application at all and that in the social sciences its validity depends very much on the precise significance given to the word "research"; that the whole concept of a necessary interdependence is, in fact, an extrapolation from the present conditions of the natural sciences. In English literature, for instance, I see no reason to suppose that the best university teaching is done by those who are also engaged in research. What is valuable and perhaps essential is that the teachers should be engaged in original work of their own; but they are likely to be better teachers if this work is creative criticism or revaluation rather than research. Whatever views one may hold about his canon, Dr. Leavis has probably been the most stimulating university teacher of English of this generation. And Dr. Leavis is not a research worker. The same is true, surely, of languages, ancient or modern. Gilbert Murray and Cyril Bailey were not eminent primarily for their contributions to research. Even in history it is surely the great re-interpreters who are the great teachers rather than the patient research workers who establish the fact that the Emperor Conrad II went to the privy at Goslar on May 7th in the year 1030.

What is of course necessary is that these great critics and interpreters should be constantly aware of the latest research and of its bearing on their interpretations. It is not necessary that they should actually be conducting research themselves.

If this is a reasonable picture of the relationship between research and teaching in the arts subjects, why is it so widely assumed that in the sciences the two are inseparable? Is it perhaps because research is the specific activity of the professional scientist and up to now science faculties have been educating none but professional scientists? It is only with the last report of the Advisory Committee on Scientific Policy for 1960-61 that we have been told, for the first time, that our universities may produce enough scientists for some of them to treat their university education as a prelude to a career not as a professional scientist but as a general administrator. As long as science faculties assume that all their students are going to be scientists the connection between research and teaching is a vital one. History faculties do not assume that more than a very small proportion of their students are going to be historians and the connection is much less important.

The newer social sciences seem to lie somewhere between these two extremes. In my own field of education I have long felt that much of the detailed research is either done in quite separate disciplines, such as psychology, or has little direct relevance to teaching. What is very relevant indeed is the interpretation of this research and the kind of large scale inquiry which is sometimes called research and sometimes not.

This view of the inter-relation between research and teaching is of crucial importance in the discussion of general degree courses. One of the commonest criticisms brought forward against them is that the students will not have time in any subject to work in sufficient "depth" or "on the frontiers of knowledge", and that, particularly in schemes like the Nottingham project, the teachers will be cut off from research and therefore not capable of giving real university teaching. If in fact personal engagement in original research is not a necessary activity of the good university teacher the criticism fails. The other criticism relating to "depth" is bound up with the second of our two main issues, the degree of "coherence" which should be imposed upon a general degree course.

This is a very old controversy and the arguments for a coherent course were well put by Thring in the middle of the nineteenth

century. Defending the purely classical education of the English Sixth Form boy, he pointed out that in an education consisting of nothing but Latin, Greek and Ancient History each part of the course was relevant to every other part. The Cicero which the boy read in the morning enabled him to judge better in the evening whether he was writing truly Ciceronian prose; he could check the opinions of the contemporary histories of Greece against the original words of Thucydides. There is clearly a great deal in this view and the arts courses proposed at Brighton are not unlike a modern version of the nineteenth-century classical curriculum. The question will always be what degree of coherence and concentration we require from the curriculum at any stage and what degree of it the student can be expected himself to impose upon his material. Assuming, as I suppose we must, at least in respect of the arts faculties, that the purpose of higher education is the development of the judgment and not the acquisition of useful knowledge, then Thring's point, and presumably Mr. Fulton's, would be that the mind must be exercised in a sufficiently limited and coherent field to make real judgments, based on real evidence, possible. Those who, like Keele and Nottingham, are considering general degrees with a very much less inherently coherent subject matter (since they include both science and arts subjects) presumably feel that such a restricted training of the judgment is too limited. If we are to interpret adequately the world of our experience, not as specialist research workers in a particular field but as generally educated people, we must be, to some extent at least, as much at home in the world of scientific judgments as in that of moral or social or aesthetic judgments. Those who would regard a general degree as the culmination of a general education would argue that it is the student himself who should be helped to impose coherence on a wide range of his experience, rather than the curriculum which should impose coherence on him by leaving a large section of his experience out. Yet this type of argument can obviously be pushed so far as to become utterly unrealistic. No degree course can cover the whole range of experience and the extent of "coherence by limitation" which is desirable will probably depend to some extent on the breadth or narrowness of the pre-university education. The foundation year at Keele was introduced largely because the Sixth Form course in England is so narrow and one-sided. There is, however, one centre of coherence which, as it seems to me, has not yet been adequately considered. Stephen Leacock assumed that his student who chose

Turkish, music and theology had done so for vocational reasons. "Studying, I suppose," he said, "to become choirmaster in the Anglican cathedral at Istanbul." And there is a hint of vocational incentive even in Thring's arguments. Boys would work better at their Greek construe, he believed, because it would be *useful* to them in doing their Greek proses.

It would be wise, I suggest, in planning general degree courses to be very sure that we are not confused by another of the accepted ideas of nineteenth-century universities, the false distinction between liberal and vocational studies. It is I suppose an accepted truism by now that the once vocational faculties of the university—law, theology, medicine—have become respectable through the passage of time. But if we look at more modern studies is it really possible to make this time-honoured distinction in terms of the subject studied at all? If engineering, which is mathematics applied to machinery, is respectable, why should accountancy, which is mathematics applied to commerce, not be? If almost all science students spend their lives as professional scientists, are not all science faculties vocational faculties? The "liberal" element in university education depends surely on the way in which the subject is studied and not on the accident of its subsequent uselessness. If, then, we are prepared to admit a vocational element to our general degrees could this not provide for many the element of coherence which is so important? What I have in mind is the familiar type of three subject degree in which one subject would have a clear vocational bias and be more obviously relevant to the activities of the non-academic world than are most of the subjects studied in general degrees today.

Such courses might combine, for instance, German and economics with either industrial relations or public administration. The general principle would be that two of the three subjects would be chosen from the normal range of academic subjects and the third from a more vocational range including, for instance, education, criminology or penology, international institutions, industrial relations, social administration and various branches of sociology and commerce. It would be important that there should be a clear relationship between the three subjects chosen. It would not be the purpose of such general courses to turn out the fully trained teacher or social worker, but it would be reasonable to expect they would shorten the time required

subsequently to achieve a professional qualification. Moreover it should not be assumed that all those who studied industrial relations would become personnel officers or all those who studied education, teachers.

Such a course, more clearly oriented to the interests of the non-academic world, would I believe be more stimulating to many of the new undergraduates than the wholly traditional general degree on the arts side. It should not, however, be studied, even on its vocational side, in an illiberal way. There is nothing fundamentally more “academically respectable” in studying the organization of the Roman political system at this level than there is in studying the organization of the modern factory. It is sometimes objected that these semi-vocational subjects are unsuited to undergraduate study because there is not as yet any accepted body of doctrine nor enough “standard works” to form the basis of an undergraduate’s reading. If they were being suggested as areas of study for single-subject specialist degrees there might be more strength in this argument, but it is surely a good preparation for the student whose future life is not to be that of the scholar to combine in his higher education some of those areas where the territory has already been well mapped out with others where much is still in the stage of speculation. Certainly it seems to me that many students would welcome such courses and that industry, commerce and the public services would welcome their products.

A PROPOSAL FOR A STUDY OF THE ECONOMIC POSITION OF THE UNIVERSITY PROFESSOR IN CANADA*

A recent (1959) study of retirement and insurance plans in American universities¹ stated that "It is obvious that industry, business, and government will be competing more and more during coming years for much the same sort of brain power as that needed by the colleges." Canadian universities will probably face an even more difficult competitive situation since at present we have only about one-third as many from the eligible age group in universities and colleges as is the case in the United States. Since this is so we can probably expect a much more rapid growth in university enrolment than will take place in the United States. Some support for this assumption is to be found in the figures to the November 1961 conference of the N.C.C.U.C. in Ottawa.² A report of the research office of the Canadian Universities Foundation estimated that by 1970-71 enrolment in Canadian universities will have reached 312,000 and that it will be necessary to enroll a teaching staff by that time of 25,000. Yet according to the official statistics as released by D.B.S., there were fewer than 2,500 masters' degrees awarded in Canada in 1960-61. In that same year graduate schools across the country, in all faculties and all disciplines, produced only 305 Ph.D. degrees — an increase of only 13 over the figure of 292 for the year 1956-57.³ Some attention is now being given in some universities to the problem of graduate studies, but it is obvious that even if the universities could attract all of their new graduate degree-holders, the increased supply will not begin to meet the increased demand. The Canadian Universities Foundation report noted above pointed out that of the 2300 new staff appointees during the period 1956 to 1958, some 43% were recruited from outside Canada.

*This proposal is the report, made in November 1962, by a C.A.U.T. committee under the chairmanship of E. D. Maher (University of New Brunswick).

¹*Retirement and Insurance Plans in American Colleges*, Greenough, W.C. and King, F. P., Columbia University Press, 1959.

²*University Development: The Past Five Years and the Next Ten*, E. F. Sheffield, Proceedings of the NCCUC conference on *Canada's Universities in a New Age* (at Ottawa, November 13-15, 1961).

³Dominion Bureau of Statistics, *Earned Graduate Degrees Granted by Canadian Universities, 1956-57 to 1960-61*.

The question of recruitment of staff is already a vital one. Discussing these facts at the N.C.C.U.C. conference, the vice-president of one of our largest universities observed, "The staff problem is almost too horrible to contemplate. I, for one, have no idea where so much additional staff will be found."⁴ Bigger classes ; fewer seminars but more lectures, crowded laboratories, less well-qualified and cheaper instruction are surely not the answers to our problem — even though there is distressing evidence that so far they are the only answers that have been readily available. Some better answers must be found.

It is evident that planning for the future of Canadian universities as a national group is necessary. It is true also, as the report to the N.C.C.U.C. suggests, that "Good planning is impossible without research and statistical information."⁵ One piece of research which is clearly necessary is a study of the economic position of the university professor in Canada in order to obtain the basic facts necessary to permit universities to establish compensation policies which will ensure the proper staffing of the Canadian universities in the next decade. Such information will also be valuable to government since together the Federal and Provincial governments in Canada provide most of the funds for universities.

Base salary is, of course, the major factor affecting the economic position of faculty members. There can be little doubt that particularly in scientific fields both industry and government offer richer rewards. Since universities seem likely to require a larger proportion of the new graduates, it would seem to be vital to know as much as possible about the probable pattern of demand for graduates in the various fields by industry, government, and the universities during the next decade. More information on faculty salaries would seem to be desirable. We know a considerable amount about salaries paid by rank — and the distributions of such salaries — but we have much less information about the age, experience, and qualifications of people at the various salary levels. The rate of promotion and the qualifications for it are almost as important as the beginning salary to the new teacher.

⁴Proceedings of the NCCUC Conference (p. 24).

⁵E. F. Sheffield, *University Development: The Past Five Years and the Next Ten*.

In addition to base salary, other benefits must be taken into account. To-day these benefits — pensions, group life insurance, group medical insurance, etc. — may amount to 10-15% of base salary for the professional and managerial groups. A recent survey of fringe benefit provisions by the Canadian Association of University Teachers⁶ reveals a hodge-podge of arrangements with extremely wide variations in benefits available, in their total cost, and in the percentage of such costs borne by the university. It seems highly unlikely that the wide variations in benefits, costs, etc., are due to careful and appropriate adjustments to the needs of different faculty groups. One would expect that university staffs, regardless of their location, would have much the same needs for these benefits. Presumably the variations are due to such things as the varying skills, in this field, of administrations and faculties in negotiating with insurance carriers; probably much of it is sheer accident, for universities do not have skilled personnel departments or carefully drafted personnel policies. No doubt the prevailing exigencies of the universities' budgets have greatly influenced the nature of many plans.

A careful study should be made of each benefit area of importance to university staffs in order to determine

- (i) the level of benefits desirable, and
- (ii) how the costs of such benefits should be handled.

A proper appreciation of the provisions of the Income Tax Act would no doubt make it possible for many institutions to improve the benefits provided to their staffs at very little cost to the institution. Consideration should be given to the merits of setting up a single benefit programme — in each field — for all institutions. It is necessary that such a possibility be considered now, since during the next few years a number of new universities will probably be established in Canada (one is currently in the process of formation in Peterborough and another is being seriously considered in the Niagara peninsula). These new institutions might well come

⁶*Some Administrative Practices at Canadian Universities and Colleges*, February, 1961, C.A.U.T.

into a national plan which would relieve them of many problems; many of the older institutions would undoubtedly come into such a plan as time passed. Even if no national programmes are found to be feasible, many improvements could be made. Certainly it would seem to be desirable to have available to individual institutions and to their faculties, carefully prepared standards which they could follow in setting up their own plans.

Although Greenough and King have produced in their study some detailed recommendations for fringe benefit plans, their proposals are not entirely appropriate to the Canadian scene. In the field of hospitalization, for example, our extensive government insurance arrangements create a situation entirely different from that which exists in the United States. Then too, they conclude, not surprisingly, that in most cases the type of fringe benefit plan offered by T.I.A.A. is the one most suitable for university faculties. But, T.I.A.A. is not licensed to sell any type of insurance in Canada and apparently has no intention of attempting to enter this field in Canada. Thus we must obviously find our own solutions.

Pensions usually represent the biggest financial outlay among the fringe benefits. Combined costs to the individual and to the institution usually amount to about 15% of salary for a satisfactory plan. With pensions, the major problems — apart from the simple one of inadequacy — concern portability and protection against inflation. Although a joint committee of the N.C.C.U.C. and the C.A.U.T. studied the problem and made recommendations in 1960,⁷ the problems still remain unchanged. Although the executive agency of N.C.C.U.C. has approved the report “in principle”, each university is still free to decide whether to act upon it. As yet, no institution whose plan is deficient has moved to amend it to meet the report’s recommendations. And although the joint committee recognized the problem presented by inflation, they presented no satisfactory proposals for dealing with it. Further study is required and particular attention should be devoted to the “Saskatchewan Plan”.⁸ Portability

⁷Report of the N.C.C.U.C.-C.A.U.T. Joint Pension Committee, 27 May, 1960.

⁸K. Buckley and N. Shklov, *The Saskatchewan Approach to the Pension Problem*.

also requires further study, particularly in view of the possible passage of legislation at both the federal and provincial levels requiring portability provisions in pension plans. In this regard many university plans fall short of what is generally regarded as satisfactory provision. Most serious of all, of course, is the simple stark fact that there is hardly a plan in existence in Canada which provides an adequate pension for persons now in retirement or soon to be so.

Group life insurance must be considered in relation to the pension arrangements and preferably ought to be integrated with the pension plan. Group hospital, medical, and surgical insurance (including major medical insurance) need to be studied in the light of the major changes which have taken place in Canada in recent years with the expansion of government services in these fields. The substantial rise in faculty salaries may require a reconsideration of the appropriate type of medical insurance, and certainly requires a re-examination of the principal sums involved in most group life policies.

Although most universities seem to have been quite generous in providing for faculty members who are temporarily disabled, their arrangements have usually been on a completely *ad hoc* basis. Nowadays growth in size of institutions — and the rise in the level of faculty salaries — are making these *ad hoc* arrangements quite unsatisfactory for the future. And in the matter of sharing the costs of disability insurance where it exists, there is no sign of uniformity at all.

The above are clearly the major problem areas. However, there are a number of other matters of lesser importance but still worthy of study. A standard university policy on the payment of moving costs would seem to be desirable. The present practice — which seems to be widespread — of individual bargaining is probably inequitable and undoubtedly leads to some bad feeling. Consideration might be given to clearing up with the federal government the tax treatment of various types of payments including those covering sabbatical leave. Indeed the whole question of the tax position of the Canadian university teacher as a professional man who can only earn a living by working as a salaried employee, ought to be examined.

The prevailing practices in the matter of providing sabbatical leave, research grants, assistance in meeting the costs of unsupported research, or of travel in connection with professional activities, mortgage loans, housing assistance, and whole or partial remittance of fees for education of faculty children — all of these ought to be examined and compared for the whole complex of university institutions. Many Canadian universities have faculty committees working in at least most of the above areas. While there is no doubt some advantage to be gained from a variety of approaches to any problem the costs of such duplication must be considered. Much of the duplication is no doubt unnecessary and unprofitable. Each committee learns by experience — experience which all too often comes too late to be useful in the particular project — what faculty committees at other institutions had learned earlier by the same trial and error process. As Dean Courtney C. Brown of the Graduate School of Business at Columbia said recently “The nation’s educational system simply cannot afford the indulgence of an excessive and unnecessary expenditure of faculty time in administrative matters . . .”⁹ A detailed study leading to the development of national fringe benefit plans for universities or of detailed standards which individual plans ought to meet would obviously relieve faculty members — and individual university administrations — of much unnecessary work. Most important of all, it would be evidence that at long last somebody was beginning to pay more than lip service to the principle that the universities and colleges of Canada are among the country’s national institutions; that what happens in one affects all, and that what happens in all of them is of vital importance to our national future.

Therefore, in view of the expected rapid increase in demand for university faculty members in the next decade, and in view of the present unsatisfactory state of fringe benefit arrangements in Canadian universities, we recommend that a detailed study be undertaken of the economic position of the university professor in Canada including a study of the problems of fringe benefits. The study should be concerned primarily with determining what arrangements are necessary in the future — not just what the situation is to-day.

⁹Dean C. Brown, *The Governance of Higher Education: Drift or Direction?* Report for 1961-62 by the Graduate School of Business, Columbia University.

REPORT ON QUESTIONNAIRE ON UNIVERSITY GOVERNMENT

ASSOCIATION OF THE TEACHING STAFF UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO

A questionnaire was sent by the secretary of the A.T.S. to all full-time members of the teaching staff of the University and the federated and affiliated Colleges, whether members of the A.T.S. or not, a total of 879, in the spring of 1962. The number filled in and returned to the Secretary was 458, or 52%. Twenty-four faculties or divisions of the University were represented in the returns. The largest numbers of returns were from: Arts and Science (including the federated Colleges) 250; Medicine 40; Engineering 33; O.C.E. 25; Hygiene 22; Nursing 11; each of the others returned less than 10.

The questionnaire, with tabulated replies, follows.

	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Unanswered</i>	<i>Total</i>
1. Do you favour staff representation on the <i>Board of Governors</i> ?	411 90%	40	7	458
2. Do you favour staff participation in appointment of a <i>President</i> ?	364 80%	74	20	458
3. Do you favour staff participation in appointment of <i>Deans</i> ?	372 81%	66	20	458
3b. Should there be a fixed term of office for deans?	257 56%	137	64	458
4. Do you favour staff participation in appointment of Chairman of Departments?	351 77%	78	29	458
4b. Should there be a fixed term of office for Chairmen?	232 51%	157	69	458

Beyond establishing the orders of magnitude of those who favoured and opposed staff participation at the various administrative levels, the questionnaire elicited a large number of comments; of the 458 returns, 292 contained comments in addition to or in explanation of the answers to the questions. Many of the comments were called forth by the imprecision of the terms of the questions; some merely drew attention to the imprecision, others made specific

proposals (e.g. the number of years for term of office), others stated an interpretation (e.g. of "participation") and gave reasoned answers for or against the question as interpreted.

The questions had deliberately been kept simple, but the replies suggest that the two questions about a fixed term of office (for deans and chairmen of departments) were too imprecise to be answered as usefully as the other questions.

The range of comments on the whole questionnaire was so wide that no useful purpose would be served by attempting a statistical analysis of them. However, a few points that were frequently made may usefully be noticed.

The most frequent comment on question 1 was that any staff representation on the Board of Governors should be substantial ($\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the whole membership of the Board). Token representation, for information and liaison only, was suggested by a few but rejected as dangerous by more.

On questions 2, 3 and 4, the imprecision of the word "participation" was frequently remarked; some who answered "no" to these questions did so because they understood that some form of election by the staff was meant. It was apparent that the majority regarded the present method of appointment of deans and chairmen as inadequate in principle; but it was not clear how many were aware that the present method includes some informal consultation of staff. Very few replies proposed election by the staff. What needs to be explored is the range of possibilities between these extremes.

On question 2, a frequent comment was that staff participation in the appointment of the President would be taken care of by an adequate staff representation on the Board.

On sub-questions 3b and 4b (fixed terms of office for deans and chairmen), most who were in favour stipulated that both should be eligible for reappointment. In the case of chairmen though not of deans, some were, however, in favour of the principle of rotating chairmen, on the ground that it allowed a man to get back to research, and that continuity was not so important for chairmen as for deans. Most who commented on fixed terms favoured a 5 to 6 year (renewable) term.

A variety of negative comments drew attention to dangers and difficulties, of most of which the committee was already aware; e.g., the difficulty of finding a method of selection of deans and chairmen which would be equally appropriate for a small as for a large faculty or department, the danger that a weak department would want to appoint itself a weak head just when it needed a strong one, the danger of undue diversion of time and energy from research and teaching to caballing and intrigue, and so on.

These and similar problems, to each of which there is not likely to be a single completely satisfactory solution, provide some indication of the complexity of the task lying ahead of the committee and of the Association.

C. B. MACPHERSON,
(Chairman, A.T.S. Committee on University Government).

NOTICES — INCOME TAX SUBMISSION

On 26 April 1963 Professors K. F. Byrd, D. R. Patton and R. Marshall, with the Executive Secretary, made a submission on behalf of the C.A.U.T. to the Royal Commission on Taxation. The object was to show that the Canadian Income Tax Act discriminates unfairly against university teachers by preventing them from deducting, in the computation of taxable income, expenses necessarily incurred in the practice of their profession. The submission draws attention to a number of such expenses, particularly the costs of travel and extra living expenses incurred in summer school teaching. It includes a chart showing that a number of such deductions are in fact allowed in the United Kingdom, the United States and Australia.

In Canada, Section 12 (1) (a) of the Income Tax Act prohibits the deduction of any expenses unless they have been incurred "for the purpose of gaining or producing income from property or a business of the tax payer". The word "business" is defined in Section 139 (1) (e) as including a "profession", but not "an office or employment". For persons who, like university teachers, are employed on salary, these two sections of the Act preclude the deduction of expenses in computing taxable income, unless there is some specific provision. One specific provision, relevant to university teachers, exists: since 1952 it has been permissible to deduct annual professional membership dues.

The submission makes alternative recommendations. The definition of a "business" in Section 139 (1) (e) should be expanded to include university teaching. For this, which involves technically the performance of services by an employee, there is precedent in the United States. The change would be the surest and simplest way of removing the present inequities of the Income Tax Act as it affects university teachers.

Alternatively, specific provision should be made to authorize the following deductions:

1. Subscriptions to professional journals,
2. Subscriptions to learned societies,
3. Costs of robes, gowns and lab. coats,
4. Costs of books purchased,
5. Costs of attending meetings of learned societies,
6. Costs of research work not reimbursed,
7. Costs of summer school refresher courses,
8. Costs of sabbatical leave connected with the teaching subject,
9. Costs of a study in the university teacher's residence, as essential to proper performance of his professional duties,
10. Costs of travel and extra living expenses, through summer employment as visiting professor for teaching or research in another university.

C.A.U.T. GROUP FLIGHTS

There is still room on a group flight (No. 5) leaving Toronto for London on 11 July 1963.

Applications in the following form should be sent to the Finlay Travel Service, Continental Companies Building, 160 Bloor Street East, Toronto 5. Cheques, marked "plus exchange" if from outside Toronto, should be made payable to Finlay Travel Service.

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(Important — for children and infants, indicate date of birth)

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University : Department :

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(not older than 3 years on return to Canada).

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- () Canadian Passport Application.
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- () Canadian Passport Renewal Application.
- () British Passport Renewal Application.
- () International Vaccination Certificate.

I Hereby Apply For (number) Seats on Group #.....

I declare myself to be a bona-fide member of the CANADIAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHERS and have been a member for at least 6 months prior to travel date. I am also applying for my family members as shown above and/or complete family dependents whom I declare to be members of my household without other support, and whom I will accompany on the flight.

I enclose deposit of \$40.00 per adult and \$20.00 per child (no deposit required for infants). Balance payment will be sent by 1 July, 1963.

Date Member's Signature

Note : British Subjects having been permanent residents of Canada for 5 years prior to 1 January 1947 are classified as Canadian Citizens. Persons who arrived in Canada after this date will be considered citizens of their country of origin unless they have taken out Canadian Citizenship (5 years residence in Canada required).

NOTICE OF POSITIONS VACANT*

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Social Scientist, to conduct research, review general problems in medical education, and assist in administrative work. Desirable qualifications: Competence in research design; experience in sociometric or psychometric surveys; familiarity with problems of students and teachers; acquaintance with medical sciences or health professions; bilingual. Starting Salary: \$6,000 - 9,000 according to qualifications. Inquiries to DR. J. WENDELL MACLEOD, *Executive Secretary*, ACMC, Canadian Universities Foundation, 75 Albert St., Ottawa 4, Ontario.

Australian National University, Canberra, Australia, announces ten new posts for 1 January 1964 or as soon as possible after :

Professor of Accounting and Public Finance

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Lecturer in Physics

Salary ranges: Professor £A4,250 p.a., associate professor £A3,300 p.a., senior lecturer £A2,450-110-£A3,000 p.a., lecturer £A1,750-100-£A2,450 p.a., plus £A31 cost of living allowance up to but not including £A2,450 p.a.

Further information about each post and the summary forms of application which should accompany an application may be obtained from the Registrar, Australian National University, P.O. Box 197, Canberra City, A.C.T., Australia, with whom applications close on 17 June 1963.

*The *Bulletin* carries these notices free of charge. Notices should be sent to the Executive Secretary, C.A.U.T., 77 Metcalfe Street, Ottawa 4.

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University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan. Lecturer or Assistant Professor in Psychology for teaching and research with experimentally-oriented interest in Developmental, Social, or Personality. Ph.D. preferred. Lecturers up to \$6,800.00, Assistant Professor \$7,000.00-\$9,300.00. Applications with *curriculum vitae* should be sent to the Head of the Department.

NOTICE OF PERSONS AVAILABLE FOR APPOINTMENT*

Philosopher, Canadian, female, 31. B. A., M. A. (Toronto), currently B. Phil. candidate, Oxford University. Specialities: Plato, Kant, political and analytical philosophy. Available from September 1963. Replies to Box No. 14, C.A.U.T. National Office, 77 Metcalfe Street, Ottawa.

Plant Morphologist. Ph.D. 1961, summa cum laude. Specialized in flower development and methodology. Would teach general biology, history of biology, philosophical basis of biology, morphology, evolution and related fields. Please write Box No. 15, C.A.U.T. National Office, 77 Metcalfe Street, Ottawa.

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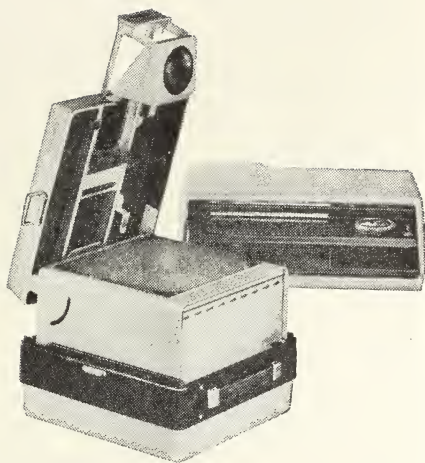
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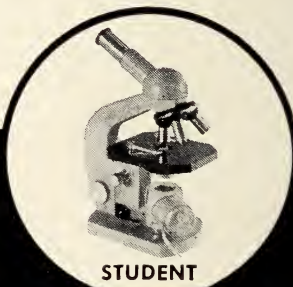
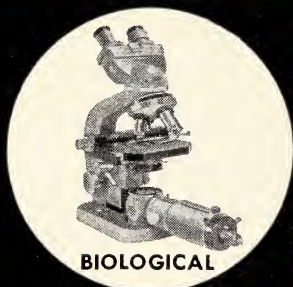
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